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Edited by FREDERICK HOWARD WINES

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READ THIS FIRST!

The attention of our readers is called to the fact that no number of the RECORD was issued for June, and that the July number takes the place of that in the numerical series. The reason for this omission is want of time on the part of the editor to prepare the necessary copy for the printer, owing to his occupation with official duties growing out of the adjournment of the Illinois General Assembly.

THE INCREASE OF CRIME.

The question is often put to us, whether crime in the United States is increasing more rapidly than the rate of increase of the population.

There are many who suppose that this and similar questions as to the insane, etc., can be answered by a simple reference to the tables in the census. They do not seem to understand that the last census was taken by a new and improved method, and that no trustworthy comparisons can be made between the results of this branch of the census of 1880 and the figures given for previous years.

In truth, the question is not an easy one. Criminal statistics in this country are so undeveloped, that the data at our command for a correct answer are very limited. There is, however, a method of arriving at a solution of the problem which, it may be presumed, will furnish an approximately accurate indication of what the answer must be. If we had, for every State in the Union, the number of persons committed each year of the past half century to our penitentiaries, for offences graded in the criminal code as felonies, we might assume that the number of prosecutions and convictions bear some fixed relation to the number of crimes perpetrated. Unfortunately, not even this information is accessible, except in a very few States. We have taken the pains to look over our files of reports of penitentiaries, and have extracted the following bits of information, which, to say the least, are unpleasantly suggestive.

Pennsylvania.

Pennsylania has two penitentiaries—one at Philadelphia and one at Allegheny. The combined figures for the two are as follows:

Year.	Population.	Commitments.	Ratio.
1830	1,348,233	88	1 to 15,320
1840	1,724,033	218	1 to 7,908
1850	2,311,786	222	1 to 10,413
1860	2,906,215	413	1 to 7,036
1870	3,521,951	459	1 to 7,673
1880	4,282,891	722	1 to 5,931

According to this table, crime is more than two and a half times as prevalent in Pennsylvania now, than it was fifty years ago.

New Jersey.

The following figures relate only to the State prison at Trenton: the county penitentiaries are not included.

Year.	Population.	Commitments.	Ratio.
1830	320,823	46	1 to 6,974
1840	373,306	61	1 to 6,119
1850	489,555	122	1 to 4,012
1860	672,035	236	1 to 2,847
1870	906,096	240	1 to 3,775
1880	1,131,116	480	1 to 2,346

The Trenton reports do not give the number of commitments in each of the years 1850 and 1860; we have, therefore, taken the commitments for 1851 and 1861 instead. In this State the ratio of convictions for felonies to the entire population is three times as great as it was fifty years ago.

Why there should be more than twice as many convictions in proportion in New Jersey as there are in Pennsylvania, we do not know.

Maine.

Let us turn our attention for a moment to New England. In the State of Maine, we are unable to ascertain, from the reports printed, the history of crime for more than twenty years past, during which there has been an increase of nearly thirty-seven per cent., which is more than in either New Jersey or Pennsylvania during the corresponding period.

Year.	Population.	Commitments.	Ratio.
1860	628,279	41	1 to 15,323
1870	626,915	52	1 to 12,056
1880	648,936	58	1 to 11,188

New Hampshire.

In New Hampshire, we find the statistics given for sixty years:

Year.	Population.	Commitments.	Ratio.
1820	244,022	18	1 to 14,001
1830	269,328	31	1 to 8,688
1840	284,574	24	1 to 11,857
1850	317,976	36	1 to 8,832
1860	326,073	35	1 to 9,316
1870	318,300	32	1 to 9,947
1880	346,991	48	1 to 7,229

Here the ratio has doubled in sixty years. The population of this State is so small, that we do not attach as great importance to the figures given, as where the field of observation is larger.

Illinois.

And now for the northwest. Thirty years' experience in Illinois, (for we can go back no farther, owing to the imperfection of the early reports), gives the following result :

Year.	Population.	Commitments.	Ratio.
1850	851,470	90	1 to 9,460
1860	1,711,951	379	1 to 4,517
1870	2,539,891	655	1 to 3,877
1880	3,077,871	884	1 to 3,481

The increase in this State has been very rapid. The ratio of convictions is more than two and a half times what it was thirty years ago.

We have included, for the year 1880, the commitments to Chester, as well as those to Joliet.

Iowa.

We cannot give the commitments for the State of Iowa, because they are not given in the reports published. The average number of prisoners at Fort Madison in 1860, was 123 ; in 1870, it was 245 ; and in 1880, it was probably 350, though in consequence of the report having been made for the biennial period, and the separate figures for each year withheld, we are not sure that this is an exact statement. For the year 1880 we must add probably another 150 in the new penitentiary at Anamosa, making 500 in all. This would give us in the penitentiary in 1860, one convict to 5,487 of the population ; but in 1880, one to 3,429,—an increase of sixty per cent. in twenty years.

Minnesota.

The following figures are taken from the report of the Minnesota State Prison :

Year.	Population.	Commitments.	Ratio.
1860	172,023	16	1 to 10,751
1870	439,706	39	1 to 11,274
1880	780,773	133	1 to 5,870

Here the ratio of convictions has nearly doubled in twenty years.

Conclusion.

Without pushing this investigation further at present, we are constrained to express the unwelcome conviction that crime *is* increasing more rapidly than the growth of our population warrants ; and that this increase is not confined to any one section of the country, but appears to be general.

In three States—Pennsylvania, New Jersey, and New Hampshire—the percentage of increase, above that of the general population, in fifty years, has been 152.

In four States—including Illinois with those already named—the percentage of increase, in thirty years, has been 104.

In seven States—including Maine, Iowa, and Minnesota —the percentage of increase, in twenty years, has been thirty-six. These seven States include nearly one fourth of the total population ; and it is fair to presume that there are more than one third more convictions now in the entire country, in proportion to the population, than there were twenty years ago, at the close of the war.

This is a subject which deserves more consideration than has been given it. It would facilitate the study of the question, if American prisons generally would prepare and publish, in their next annual or biennial reports, tables giving the number of total commitments every year since the opening of each prison.

CRIME, CRIMINALS, AND THE LEGAL PROFESSION.

In the published transactions of the Ninth Annual Meeting of the American Bar Association, held at Saratoga, August 18-20, 1886, we find several references to matters which fall within the sphere of the general subject known as "penology," or the science of punishment.

The Whipping Post.

The Committee on Jurisprudence and Law Reform made a report on "The Whipping Post as a Punishment for Crime," which is signed by Messrs. Simeon E. Baldwin, of New Haven, Connecticut, Henry Hitchcock, of St. Louis, Missouri, and Simon Sterne, of New York, in which they say :

> One of the needs of the times is a punishment that will actually punish, some penalty which will be certain, conspicuous, and severe—that will not only alarm the evil-disposed, but which an outraged community can wait to see inflicted with confidence that it will be really punitive. There will then be less temptation to prevent the escape of an offender by another outrage against the already violated law. Flogging is such a punishment ; repugnant certainly to our ideas of the treatment which a human being should receive, and degrading ; but so good an authority as Mr. Archibald Forbes, whose familiarity with the English army began with his enlistment as a private in a cavalry troop, gives it as his opinion that it is a most valuable means of discipline with soldiers, and that some of the best men that he had known in the army had been flogged in the early part of their service.

After citing statistics as to the effect of the Maryland statute of 1882 providing for the punishment by flogging and imprisonment for brutally assaulting and beating one's wife, which show that the number of arrests for wife-beating in Baltimore fell from 156 in 1882-3 to 67 in 1885-6, they continue :

> If flogging be an appropriate punishment for a man who has beaten his wife, it is difficult to see why it should not be applied to other cases of brutal assault upon weak and defenceless persons, or of assaults with slung-shots, brass knuckles, and such weapons as are found only in the hands of criminals. Its efficacy in putting a stop to garroting, a crime once prevalent in London, is within the recollection of all. To the objection as to its degrading effect, it is sufficient to reply, that if the criminal is not deterred by the degradation of the act, the public need not be very sensitive lest he be degraded by the punishment. In the language of Dr. Arnold, of Rugby : "When it is impossible to find a true, manly sense of the degradation of guilt, where is the wisdom of encouraging a fantastic sense of the degradation of personal correction?" All crime is degrading, and punishment should emphasize that degradation. When a punishment has ceased to be regarded among criminals as either degrading or painful, it is time to find another. We can be sure that flogging will always meet at least one of these requirements. The extension of this punishment should be gradual ; and if the result, as shown by carefully collected statistics, confirms the conclusions which have been reached in Baltimore, its beneficial effect might be further extended.

American Prisons.

We quote from the same report the following observations on our prison system :

> In determining whether we should seek most the good of the criminal, by providing for his reformation, or the welfare of the public, by preventing future crime, it is the condition of the criminal which seems to excite most sympathy. In the reaction against the terrible injustice that made death the punishment alike for the murderer and the pickpocket, there has been a tendency to rather confused and sentimental views of the rights of criminals. The protection extended to the accused on trial, the increasing difficulty of securing the conviction of notorious offenders, the limitation upon the punishment which may be inflicted, amount almost to a license to crime.
>
> We have reason to be thankful that the refinements of the age have had their influence in the construction and management of our prisons. In place of the pestilent dungeon that disgraced England a century ago, our penitentiaries are generally models of neatness and good order, with every provision for the preservation of health that science can suggest. The inmates, warmly and comfortably clad and amply provided with wholesome food, are often better supplied with the necessaries of life than the honest poor in our large cities. They are, it is true, deprived of their liberty and compelled to work ; but each year the character and the amount of the labor that can be demanded of them is being more restricted by the protests of those who are engaged in similar work outside. It seems to be only a question of time, when not "imprisonment at hard labor," but imprisonment with absolute idleness, will be the only punishment, short of death, that the law can impose. This is in fact the only punishment now for a large class of offences. It is impossible

to provide employment for convicts serving short terms. They are generally ignorant of any handicraft that can be carried on in jail, and their sentences expire before they can be taught. Winter after winter the jails and reformatories in our large cities are filled with a growing class of people who have come to look upon a term of three months as a not altogether uncomfortable way of obtaining food and clothing, fuel and shelter, without effort and without expense. These are the men who, in the spring, are turned loose to tramp through the country, a terror to women in lonely farm-houses, the State poorer for their winter's keep, while the only change wrought in them has been to make them more dangerous, because more healthy and vigorous brutes.

Every effort to strengthen the hand of the State to cope with the criminal classes encounters more or less opposition from mistaken friends of humanity.

Road-Building.

The views expressed by this committee as to the practicability of employing convicts in building public roads are so crude, and so contrary to those held by persons of experience in handling convicts, that we regard them as unworthy of any extended notice.

Indeterminate Sentences.

The Committee on Judicial Administration and Remedial Procedure made a report on "Indeterminate Sentences of Convicted Criminals," which is signed by Messrs. Rufus King, of Cincinnati, George W. Biddle, of Philadelphia, Henry W. Garnett, of Washington, and R. D. Benedict, of New York. It is rather a non-committal sort of paper, and is open to the criticism of inaccuracy in its declaration that the indeterminate sentence leaves to the prison authorities the power and discretion in respect of duration of sentence of imprisonment which has been heretofore exercised by the courts. This is not true, because the action of the prison authorities is controlled by the prisoner's record while in prison, while the action of the court is governed by its estimate of the degree of guilt attaching to a given criminal act. The statement that by means of the indeterminate sentence "the graduation of the punishment to the case can be more justly settled," is also inaccurate. Of more importance are the objections urged by the committee against the parole system as administered in New York and Ohio. These are, (1) that "the experiment of confiding to a board of directors what looks so much like the pardoning power as the absolute release which they may confer, is one as to which we may well hesitate." (2) The committee "cannot forbear the expression of serious doubt whether, even under the New York statute, any thing like the protection which is due to society is secured by an adequate provision for the supervision of the convict while out on parole." (3) The dispersion of paroled criminals all over the Union "is not unlike the emptying of European prisons on our shores." The committee evidently thinks better of the English ticket-of-leave, the conditions of which are prescribed by Parliament, and among them is one that the prisoner shall not only be limited to a specific residence, but that he shall not change to another, even in the same police district, without notice to the chief of police or constabulary; and, if transferred to another district, must at once report to the chief of that district. As will be observed, these objections apply only to details of the system, not to its substance. Therefore we may regard the American Bar Association, so far as this slight indication goes, to occupy a favorable rather than an unfavorable attitude to the coming reform.

THE NATIONAL PRISON ASSOCIATION.

The annual meeting of the National Prison Association will open, at Toronto, in Canada by special invitation of the authorities of the Dominion, on the 10th of September. The Warden's Association for Registration of Criminals will meet at the same time and place; and possibly also the Prison Chaplains' Association, though we are not definitely informed of the fact.

LEGISLATION IN WISCONSIN.

BY A. O. WRIGHT.

At the request of the editor, I give a brief statement of legislation in Wisconsin, at the last session of the General Assembly.

The appropriations for the current expenses of the several State institutions, for two years, were as follows: "State Hospital for the Insane, $115,000; Northern Hospital for the Insane, $131,000; School for the Deaf, $80,000; School for the Blind, $45,000; Industrial School for Boys, $75,000; State Prison, $30,000; State Public School, whatever is necessary. The only appropriation for permanent improvements was one of $65,000 for the State Public School for Dependent Children, for a main building, two cottages, a barn and other outbuildings, thus completing the institution begun last year. An appropriation of $5,000 was made to the Industrial School for Girls (a semi-State institution), for "necessary improvements and repairs." The buildings belong to the State, but the management is in the hands of a private corporation of ladies.

The question of prison labor was left undecided for two years. A committee of the legislature was appointed to visit other States and report at the next session. The State Board of Supervision was authorized to contract the prison labor for a term of two years only. This was a compromise measure. As a precaution, in case satisfactory contracts cannot be made, the Board of Supervision may, at any time, with the consent of the Governor, Secretary of State, and Attorney General, purchase machinery and materials to the value of $100,000, and engage in manufacturing on State account. The building of a new prison was also postponed.

An important act restores the limit of 21 years as the maximum age for the discharge of children in the industrial schools, instead of 18; and it raises the maximum age for commitment to 18, instead of 16 years, in the discretion of the magistrate. These provisions, together with the establishment of the State Public School for Dependent Children, tend to make the industrial schools much more nearly reformatories than they have been heretofore.

The power of the State Board of Charities and Reform are considerably increased. All plans for poor-houses, jails, and county asylums for the chronic insane, must be submitted to them. Power was given to this board to condemn certain jails and police stations and forbid their use. And hereafter no jail or police station can be constructed in the basement of some other building, as has been too much the practice hitherto.

All county asylums for the chronic insane are hereafter to be governed by a board of trustees, elected by the county board in each county. The trustees are to appoint the superintendent, and he is to appoint the employés, subject to the approval of the trustees. This law will secure uniformity of administration in these new institutions, and in some cases a better administration.

The rate of charges for board and medical treatment in the State and county insane asylums, for persons able to pay, was limited to three dollars a week; and such charges are prohibited in cases where "a parent, wife, or child is dependent on the property for future support."

As the result of the investigation of the Milwaukee County Insane Asylum (a semi-State institution), the board of trustees were changed, by act of the legislature, on the recommendation of the State Board of Charities and Reform.

The President's veto of the "dependent pension bill" hastened State legislation in favor of dependent soldiers. Soldiers (and their wives, widows, and children), must hereafter be relieved outside of poor-houses. A special tax is levied by the counties and placed in the hands of a soldiers' relief commission in each county, so that soldiers and their families are not even to be relieved from the poor

fund, but from a special fund, not to exceed one-fifth of a mill on the dollar of the assessed valuation of property.

The legislature granted to the Wisconsin Veterans' Home, incorporated by the Grand Army of the Republic, aid proportionate to the number of inmates, at the rate of three dollars each a week. This institution will receive not only dependent soldiers and sailors, but their wives and widows, provided they were such during the Civil War, and have not married since.

The tramp act has been entirely revised, owing to decisions by the supreme court. The punishment has been made hard labor in the county jail not exceeding three months, or solitary confinement not exceeding ten days. The jailor is forbidden to allow tramps in jail to have tobacco, newspapers, cards, or any articles of amusement. The county board may fix the fees for arresting and convicting tramps. It is unlawful to arrest them for some other offence for the purpose of evading the law and securing greater fees. Conspiracy of officers and magistrates to evade this law or to encourage tramps is punishable by a fine of from $300 to $500 and ineligibility to office for five years. The sheriff is given full power to work tramps on the highways. Certain features of this act have been rendered necessary by the actions of officers and magistrates in some counties.*

Sheriffs' fees for taking insane patients to and from the hospitals have been increased.

Sheriffs are authorized to offer a reward for the capture of criminals in some cases.

The exposure of the low dives in the mining districts of Wisconsin and Michigan led to a series of laws, as follows: The abduction or the enticing away of any person under eighteen years of age for any criminal or unlawful purpose is made punishable by fine and imprisonment. Intercourse with a girl under fourteen years of age is punished by commitment to states-prison for life. Enticing or abducting an unmarried woman of previous chaste character to a house of ill-fame is punishable by imprisonment for from five to fifteen years. Detention of any woman in a house of ill-fame against her will is punishable by imprisonment for the same minimum and maximum term. Intercourse with an idiot girl is punishable by imprisonment for from two to five years. Any owner or manager of a house of ill-fame who induces, or knowingly permits, a girl under the age of twenty-one years to resort to it for purposes of prostitution is liable to imprisonment for from one to three years. Keepers of houses of ill-fame, and proprietors of houses who knowingly lease them for that purpose, are liable to fine and imprisonment, and the lease is voided. Inmates are punished by a fine of from ten to one hundred dollars, or by imprisonment not exceeding ninety days, or by both. The names of the keeper and inmates need not be mentioned in the warrant of search and arrest, and the sheriff may break open doors, and summon the posse of the county. Children may be taken away from vicious or immoral parents, or those who abuse them, and be provided with proper guardianship.

On the liquor question the amount of legislation was small. Elections may not be held in saloons, or in rooms adjoining them. Inebriates may be committed to an insane asylum for from three months to two years, if paid for as private patients. [A bad law.—Ed. RECORD.] Local authorities may forbid the sale of liquor to drunkards in neighboring towns, as well as in their own. No State appropriation can be given to any agricultural fair, unless gambling and the sale of liquor are shut out. Druggists' permits are now optional instead of obligatory upon the local authorities.

Wilful abandonment of children by their father, and of a wife by her husband, is punished more severely than heretofore.

A general system of district school libraries is established, subject to the direction of the State Superintendent of Public Instruction. One-twentieth of the income of the school fund, and one-twentieth of all school taxes, except the district tax, are appropriated to this purpose. The effect of this action upon the children and youth of our State will be second only to that of the public school system itself.

* In the county of Sangamon, in the State of Illinois, a recent investigation by the county board brought out the fact that, for a series of years past, sheriffs have been in the habit of paying policemen fifty cents for each supposed tramp arrested (without warrant) and brought to the county jail. The sheriffs have received sixty cents a day for board of prisoners, and have charged for lodging and breakfast as two days, besides the fees for locking and unlocking. The business was so profitable to all parties that there was even talk of connecting the jail with a railroad yard by telephone, so that the switchmen could notify the authorities of the presence of any suspicious-looking stranger in the yard.—Ed. RECORD.

OUR LETTER-BOX.

The reformatory bill which passed the House, failed in the Senate, much to my surprise and regret. The governor was heartily in favor of it; and but for the fact that there were other demands upon the State treasury having friends who thought that their pet schemes might be jeopardized by its passage, it would have become a law. A bill did pass, which was called the reformatory bill, but it does not amount to much. It provides for night-schools in the prisons, I think. As to the location at Wetumpka, I am not sure that it is not as good a place as we can find. It is healthy, and has first-class buildings in pretty good repair, and it is not far from the capital, where it could be easily seen by the members of the legislature. In fact, I know of no good reason why such an institution should not be located there.

We succeeded in getting an appropriation of $20,000 for the school for the blind, and will at once build such a house as the same will justify.

I think there was nothing else of interest to you done by the legislature at its recent session. J. H. JOHNSON.

Talladega, Alabama, May 9th.

The Illinois legislature adjourned on the 15th of June. It appropriated, for the institutions subject to the inspection of the Board of Charities, the gross sum of $2,440,358.53, for their use during the two years beginning July 1, 1887. This does not include the universities nor the penitentiaries; nor is an appropriation of $100,000 included in it, which was made for the establishment of an Industrial Home for the Blind at Chicago. A tender was made of the Soldiers' and Sailors' Home at Quincy to the National Government. The fiscal year of the institution has been changed, to end June 30th, instead of September 30th, as heretofore: this is to enable the State printer to get out their reports before the convening of the General Assembly. The bill to revise the lunacy laws did not come to a vote. A bill to consolidate the management of the two penitentiaries under a single board, and making one of them a reformatory, with the "indeterminate" sentence, passed the House, but failed in the Senate for want of time. The State Commissioners of Public Charities were directed by resolution to bring in, at the next session, a single consolidated appropriation bill for all the institutions under their charge. JOHN W. WHIPP.

Springfield, Illinois, June 20th.

THE NATIONAL CONFERENCE.

The date of the Fourteenth National Conference of Charities and Correction at Omaha HAS BEEN CHANGED, at the unanimous request of the local committee of arrangements, owing to the fact that the State Fair and a Soldiers' Reunion, during the first week of September, would interfere with the success of the Conference, it is thought. The date has been fixed for the 25TH OF AUGUST. Please observe this change.

An excellent programme has been prepared, and a large attendance is expected.

OUR BOOK-TABLE.

In Russian and French Prisons. By P. Kropotkine. With a Plan of the St. Petersburg Fortress. London: Ward & Downey, 12 York Street, Covent Garden, 1887. Pp. 388.

A severe indictment is brought, in this book, against the Russian prison system. The number of prisoners in Russia is estimated at 100,000, which is one third more than the capacity of the prisons. But overcrowding is their least objectionable feature. Their sanitary condition is such, that scurvy and typhus fever are not uncommon in them. Even the model prison, on the Belgian plan, constructed at St. Petersburg, is so wretchedly ventilated, that M. Grot, Secretary of State, reported in 1881 that, to render it habitable, it must be completely rebuilt. Oaths, filth, brutality, bribery, blows, hunger—these are the essentials of every *ostrog* and of every depot from Kovno to Kamchatka, and from Archangel to Erzeroum. (The *ostrogs* are the provincial lock-ups, which the traveller sees at the entrance of every Russian town.) The central prisons, which are for convicts sentenced to hard labor, are "so many practical hells: the horrors of hard labor in Siberia have paled before them." The Fortress of St. Peter and St. Paul, at St. Petersburg, is a Bastille for political prisoners, who are kept there for years, "awaiting the decisions of the secret commissions, which may send them before a court, or despatch them to Siberia, without ever bringing them before any judge." This fortress is a grave. Communication between those who are confined in it is effectually prevented; the warders will not reply to a question addressed to them, even about the weather; formerly the visits of relatives were forbidden, and none but rigorously supervised letters could be sent out of it; it contained dungeons in which all trace of their inmates was lost. But the author's main attention is given to the fate of the exiles to Siberia and to the island of Sakhalin. No less than 165,000 human beings have been transported to Siberia during the last ten years—more than half of them by a simple administrative order, without the sentence of any court. Twenty years ago, they marched on foot from Moscow to their destination, a distance of from 4,500 to 5,200 miles, consuming two years or more in the journey. Now, however, they are carried part of the way in wagons and by barges. The march commences at Tomsk. Those who have seen a party of 500 convicts, with women and children, on the march, will never forget it. A Russian painter, M. Jacoby, has tried to represent it on canvas; his picture is sickening, but the reality is worse. One day in three is devoted to resting in the *étapes*, or log huts, built to accommodate 150 convicts, by the way. The intervening nights are spent in the *half-étapes*, which are smaller, and, as a rule, still more dilapidated, still more rotten and foul. Arrived at their destination, they are imprisoned or set to work in mines or employed in the salt-works. The accuracy of the description of the Siberian prisons given by Mr. Lansdell, in his "Through Siberia," is warmly contested by Prince Krapotkine, who thinks that he "cast a hasty glance on what the authorities were willing to show him." The condition of the Siberian exile is in truth most forlorn, and banishment is inflicted often for the most trivial offences. Sakhalin—an island 670 miles in length, and varying from 20 to 150 miles in width, in the Northern Pacific Ocean, with coal mines which yield 5,000 tons a year, and less than 1,500 acres of land under cultivation, but with a population of 5,000 wretched savages and 700 still more unhappy families of convicts—is said to be unsurpassed in desolation, except by Nova Zembla and New Siberia. This is the latest Russian penal colony.

We pass over the account given of the French prisons, with which our readers are doubtless more familiar than with those of Russia, and call attention to the two closing chapters of the book before us, entitled respectively, "On the Moral Influence of Prisons" and "Are Prisons Necessary?" in which there is much to awaken profound thought. Elsewhere we print some selected extracts from the first of them, which will repay reading.

MISS WOLFE.

The death of Miss Catharine Lorillard Wolfe, in NewYork, last week, reached the importance of a public misfortune. She was the richest unmarried lady in the United States. Her estate is valued at $20,000,000. Her benefactions, since she came into her great estate, have amounted probably to $5,000,000; and have been given in a way indicating her generosity and nobility of character. She did her good works in secret, and carried her reserve to such an extent that it is impossible now to determine the amount of her beneficent gifts. Her sympathies were easily awakened by a story of hardship; yet her nature was a strong one, and difficult to impose upon. Such a person realizes the American idea of a philanthropist: rich, without the pride of wealth; and generous, without false sentiment.

I attended the funeral of Miss Wolfe, at Grace Church. She was a communicant of this church, and it owes much to her generosity. She built the chantry, paid for the organ, the reredos, and presented the handsome "Te Deum" window, which has been pronounced the finest stained-glass window in the United States. In order to have it in the best position, the transept was torn down and set back ten feet, and a lot bought behind it, so that no structure may ever rise to shut out the light. To this church of her love she left $350,000, and returned her pews to the church, expressing the hope that it might soon become a free place of worship.

I was impressed with the genuine solemnity and good taste shown in the funeral services of this great philanthropist. By request, there was no floral display; and no emblems of mourning. Bishop Potter and Dr. Huntington led the procession of clergymen, followed by Miss Wolfe's attendant physicians. The coffin was borne by the assistant rectors of the parish (at their own request). There was no eulogistic sermon. This was in accordance with the lady's wishes. Miss O'Keefe (whose musical education had been a gift from Miss Wolfe) sang, magnificently and with feeling, her benefactor's favorite hymns. After the service, with solemn fervor and dramatic force, she sang Cherubini's "I heard a voice." As the body was borne out of the church, a quartet of fine voices sang "Nearer, my God, to Thee."

In order to give some idea of Miss Wolfe's well-selected objects of charity, her public spirit, and wide-reaching benefactions, I think I am justified in going more into detail. As a public benefactress, her life and work should be generally known.

She was a charming woman, much admired and courted. In her youth, she had been a leader of society; in middle life, she spent much of her time in travelling. She was well informed on general topics and on charitable work. She gave her closest personal attention to the business of her estate; and, though she had her lawyers and managers, she generally followed her own decisions in the management of her charities and her fortune. Her life history is, for the most part, that of her benefactions. Her father enlisted her sympathies in his charities, before he died. His death occurred in 1872, at which time she became his sole heiress. She seems to have made it her first business to carry forward his projected enterprises. These included a high-school for girls at Denver, Colorado; a fund for a diocesan school for girls at Topeka, Kansas; and a theological seminary in Ohio. To all of these she gave her full support. Recently, she gave $50,000 to a cluster of buildings on Long Island, erected for crippled and destitute children and worthy Christian men.* She assisted in the work of the Sheltering Arms, a home for children started by her father and Mrs. Peter Cooper. She gave the ground for the Home for Incurables, a charity which her father had planned. To Union College she gave $100,000; built the American church at Rome; contributed to the American chapel in Paris; paid for an Italian mission, St. Philip's Church; and built a Newsboys' Lodging-House, in the city of New York. She supported many aged clergymen, through the "Wolfe Fund." She gave freely in cases of individual and family need, and subscribed liberally to church and eleemosynary societies throughout the United States. She presented the Jay collection of shells to the Museum of Natural History, of which her father was the first president. She was the patron of the Wolfe Expedition to Asia Minor in 1884, by which valuable archæological researches were made, throwing new light upon the Scriptures, and bringing to knowledge many tablets and pillars with inscriptions. The crowning gift of her munificent life, made known by her will, was the donation of her collection of paintings to the Metropolitan Museum of Art. In money, it represents a half million dollars; its value, from an artistic point of view, it would be impossible to estimate.—"M. A. H.," in the (Louisville) *Orphan's Friend*.

A criminal at large is a double curse; a curse to society and a curse to himself. He is morally diseased; and, like a man mentally diseased, should be placed under restraint, not for a fixed time but till he is cured. —FREDERIC HILL.

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* St. Johnland, of which an accont is given in the present number of the RECORD. —*Editor*.

LEAVES FROM A WAR DIARY.

BY A HOSPITAL CHAPLAIN.

If the following extracts from a diary kept by an army chaplain will interest any of your readers, they are welcome to them. They will afford an occasional glimpse, perhaps, of one side of army life about which little has been written.

You will understand, without my saying so, that these are fragmentary selections from a mass of material, chosen because it pleases me to tell my story, or part of it, in this way.

I was, when I entered the army, a mere boy—only twenty-four years of age. My life had been entirely spent at home or at school, so that my actual knowledge of men and affairs was practically nothing. I had a youthful enthusiasm for the vocation of a clergyman, a high sense of its responsibilities, a strong sympathy with the cause of the Union, and an earnest purpose to ameliorate to some extent the sufferings incident to a state of war, and to prove a restraint upon lawlessness and immorality. The point of view from which I regarded the struggle was that neither of a soldier nor of a politician. My residence, at the time of receiving my commission, was in one of the border southern States; but I was a northern man by birth and by principle. I did not reside in camp, took part in but a single engagement, remained at one point, and maintained my relation as a citizen throughout the war.

So much by way of introduction, or, if you please, of apology.

July, 1862.—My commission as chaplain has come, and I have been sworn into the United States service.

The duty of visiting the sick and wounded in a hospital is very self-denying. The men are all anxious to exhibit their wounds, and the sight is repulsive. Besides, they emit an unpleasant odor. The draft on one's sympathies is great. Poor fellows! some of them have lain in bed ever since the battle of ——, and are reduced to skin and bone. One thing I have done for them: I have obtained orders from Gen. B—— for their decent burial in an enclosed plot of ground.

Of course my acceptance of this position precludes my going away from here, under any circumstances. I consider myself bound, morally and in honor, to remain with the sick, even if this place should again be occupied by the rebels, an event which is not so unlikely as it seemed two or three months ago. If the rebels should return, I would have nothing to fear personally worse than insults; my position as a prisoner of war would secure me from violence.

We had a delightful picnic last week. The general in command furnished two ambulances and a carriage, in which a pleasant party, including his wife and daughter, rode to O—— and back. We had an escort of fifteen cavalrymen, and two non-commissioned officers, and took along a wagon loaded with tents, camp-stools, a camp-chest, and an abundance of edibles. On the way, we paid a visit to the famous cave, noted for the magnificence of its entrance. The arch is almost perfect in its contour, and in the centre rises to the height of the tall trees which grow in the ravine at the cave's mouth. The floor of the cave is a smooth, undulating rock, broken here and there into abrupt steps. Through the middle of this high, vaulted chamber, flows a limpid stream of cold water, which widens here and there into a pool or miniature lake. The cavern narrows gradually for a distance of perhaps 200 yards, until, after passing a large rock which somewhat resembles a petrified cascade, one can touch both sides of the passage by stretching out one's arms, and must needs stoop a little, to avoid bumping the head. Some of us followed the windings of the cavern, beyond this projecting rock, until we were stopped by the water which filled up the whole width of the passage. In the mouth of this cave we ate our lunch. We camped for the night at O——, where we drank tea upon the grass, washed our hands and faces in the stream, and lay upon blankets and shawls, talking, laughing, and singing, until some one beat tattoo upon an old tin pan. The next morning we fished, boated, swam, and rode; but in the afternoon returned home, bringing with us a prisoner—a deserter, whom one of the escort had found and captured. These picnics are one of the more agreeable features of army life, and I hope to take part in more of them.

August.—We have had quite a little excitement in town to-day, owing to the withdrawal of all the troops from the outposts, and their concentration at this place. Rumors are in circulation of a proposed raid by the rebels.

The militia are organizing and arming, and bid fair to become effective troops. Disloyal citizens are required to work on fortifications. A fort is now building, west of the town, which will enclose ten acres of ground. If I were a rebel commander, I should simply enter the town from the east.

Our funerals are now much more impressive than they were before I was appointed chaplain. To-day a man was buried from an artillery company. The whole company turned out, preceded by two bands; the body was carried on a cannon carriage, and wrapped with the flag; the salute over the grave was fired by a brass piece, which formed part of the procession.

I am supposed to be in receipt of a monthly salary, but really have only a dollar in my pocket—and that is borrowed.

September.—General T—— has arrived, bringing with him considerable reinforcements, and has assumed command of the division. With the militia, we now have in the department about 20,000 troops—enough, if they are well handled. But by their presence they are fast impoverishing the country. The border states endure great suffering by the war. They are injured and abused by both sides, maintain their loyalty at great cost of property and feeling, and receive no sympathy, but are looked upon with constant suspicion. Their lot is peculiarly hard to bear. There is a prospect of much destitution here this winter. Refugees are continually arriving from the south, who camp out in tents, in sheds, and in unoccupied houses. Not a house in town is vacant. Even the schoolhouses and the churches are occupied, either by the government or by vagrant families.

Another tragedy to-day, instigated by the devil of drink. A quarrel between drunken soldiers began upon the public square. I was sitting at my window, and my attention was arrested by eight or ten pistol-shots behind the house. I ran to see why they were fired, and arrived at the bottom of the garden just in time to see the *dénouement* of the affair. One man had been killed, two were severely wounded, a third had his lip cut open by a blow from a boot, and the murderer was running at full speed across the open common, followed by an exasperated crowd. Bareheaded, I ran with the rest, and came up with them just in time to save his life, which would have been sacrificed if I had not interfered to stop the blows levelled at him. One man had cut him upon the head with the butt of a revolver, another had mashed the side of his face with his fist, when I laid hold of their arms and demanded that the poor wretch should have a trial and justice. The dead man lay upon the sward, pale and ghastly, shot in three places, his life entirely extinct, and his soul—I fear that it went to meet the reward of a career utterly vicious and God-forsaken. He was one

of the worst men in the army, and was to have been drummed out of it in a day or two.

I was sent for this afternoon to pray with a dying woman —a refugee and widow, who will leave two children to be cared for by an unfeeling world. I found her lying in the corner of the room upon the floor, with an old calico quilt wrapped around her, and smoking a corn-cob pipe. Her dress was of homespun. Her face was hollow, and her hands wasted to skeletons, but her heart was fixed upon her Redeemer. Ignorant of nearly all else, for she was unable even to read her Bible, she yet knew that Christ loved her, and that she loved Christ. To cheer a dying bed, this knowledge is better than all the discoveries of science.

No one can imagine what war is, who has not seen it with his own eyes. There are families of women and children who are afraid to stay at home while their husbands and brothers are absent in the army, living in tents, all around the town, sleeping on the bare ground. They are without money to buy food, and food will be scarce and dear next winter. My heart bleeds for them.

I lay last night, upon my back, upon the grass, when every one else was asleep, and gazed at the stars. I looked till the sky seemed to open, and I began to realize a little of their immense magnitude and distance. I seemed to be gazing through long vistas of blue at each whirling globe, until I felt myself a speck in infinite space, and that the world itself is but a little boat, sailing upon a boundless aërial sea. What can I do, thought I to myself, but drift with the current? What if another star should collide with us? And then I thought that God holds them all in the hollow of his hand, that not one of them can vary an inch from its appointed orbit, and I was quieted. But what he does for the stars, I am sure that he does for men, and this is my only hope.

We are fortifying the town as rapidly as possible. Every man and boy, black and white, who is able to work and who lives within five miles, has been ordered to the trenches. All the stores are closed. The large fort is nearly completed, and three others are in process of erection. A flag of truce came in yesterday, the real purpose of which was supposed to be to spy out our condition. But the bearer was not permitted to come nearer than O——, which is fourteen miles distant. Though I am exempt from duty upon the forts, I felt that I ought to take my share with the rest, and shovelled dirt for one afternoon and one morning, till the doctor forbade my doing anything more. I am threatened with an attack of fever.

We had quite an alarm last night. The troops were ordered out at midnight to man the forts, as a party of the enemy had been seen only eight miles from here, and it was not known but that the main body was approaching. Hereafter, the forts will be occupied every night. Large reinforcements have arrived. General H——'s entire brigade, numbering five full regiments, is camped to-night only twelve miles east of town. General S—— will arrive to-morrow and take command in person. The beef contractor has been directed to provide beef for 20,000 men.

October.—I have been very busy lately, attending the sick and dying, both in the hospital and in the town. I conducted a funeral this afternoon in a rebel family. The widow is left desolate, without a relative within 1,000 miles, and with five children dependent on her. She cried aloud all the way to the grave and all the way back. It was a painful sound to my ears. I had to assist with my own hands in laying out her husband's body and putting it in the coffin, after the friends had assembled for the burial service. Although he was a Secessionist, those present were nearly all Union people.

At the lowest estimate, there are not less than two or three hundred women and children now in this town, who can not survive the winter without the aid of charity. The larger part of them have been reduced to poverty by the rebellion. Daily applications for relief are made by them to the commander of the post. Even the citizens of the better class are in danger of suffering. The crops this year have been light, and the presence of the army has sent the price of provisions up. The most destitute among them should be sent north, by order of the government, enforced, if need be, by the military power.

SAINT JOHNLAND.

The Church Industrial Community of St. Johnland was founded in 1866, by the Rev. Dr. Muhlenberg, as a home for aged men and young children of both sexes, especially cripples. In 1870 the "Society of St. Johnland" was incorporated, under whose control the work has since been carried on.

St. Johnland is situated on Long Island Sound, 45 miles from New York City. The settlement has over 30 structures, with a population ranging from 250 to 300. The society owns an estate of 565 acres, 200 of which are under cultivation.

The Community is a little world in itself. Here is a very pretty church, where daily services are held; a neat schoolhouse, accommodatiug 90 children; a printing-office and stereotype foundry, where plates are made for leading New York publishers; a library, with a good supply of books; a store, where the supplies are bought at wholesale and distributed to the different homes; a bakery, where white and brown bread are baked every day; a tailor's shop, where a tailor with several apprentices makes clothing for the beneficiaries; a cobbler's shop, where an old man is kept busy in repairing the ravages of work and play upon the children's shoes; a laundry, where all the washing is done; a carpenter's shop; a blacksmith's shop; a garden, where a full supply of vegetables is raised; and a farm and dairy.

St. John's Inn, or the Old Men's Home, is the largest building in St. Johnland. It is, in fact, three large houses connected by enclosed passages, forming a front of 150 feet.

The children are grouped in families of from 20 to 30, in different buildings, each under the care of a Christian lady of refinement. The boys are given a common-school education, and are then taught a useful trade. The girls attend school with the boys, and are trained to domestic duties. Orphan girls, at a suitable age, are placed at homes in Christian families.

St. Johnland is not an institution, in the ordinary sense of that word. It is not a reformatory. It is not a cheap boarding-school.

The terms for old men are $150 a year; and for children, $125, or $100 if the clothing is furnished by friends.

The leading idea of St. Johnland, as pictured in the "Retrospectus" of Dr. Muhlenberg, was the cottages, which would be filled from the swarming tenements of the city: a beautiful ideal, which has not been fully realized. In the opinion of the superintendent, the Inn for Aged Men, a bed in which can be endowed for $3,000, is the crowning glory of the establishment. It is proposed to build another, to be called St. Martha's Inn for Aged Women, on the opposite side of the quadrangle. In many respects this is a unique and beautiful charity, worthy of study and imitation elsewhere.

Clementia cum judicio.
In severitate humanitas.
Sine caritate justicia vindicationi similis.
Regia, crede mihi, refert succurrere lapsis.
Niemanden undnichts aufgeben.

THE BLIND BEGGARS OF CHINA.

Those who have attempted to master the difficulties of the numerous dialects of Chinese, or the terrible array of intricate-written characters which the weary eye must transfer to memory ere it is possible to read the simplest book, can alone fully appreciate the boon which has been conferred on the legion of the blind in China by means of the patient ingenuity of a Scotch workingman.

There is not a city in China where blind beggars do not abound, frequently going about in companies of a dozen or more, and assembling at certain spots in clamorous crowds, hungry and almost naked ; truly of all men most miserable —the more so, as many are also afflicted with leprosy.

The benefactor who has, in such a wonderful sense, opened the eyes of the blind, is Mr. W. H. Murray, whose calling to mission work must be traced to an accident in a saw-mill, whereby he lost his arm, and so was disabled from following his original avocation. This apparent calamity has resulted in a discovery which, if properly developed, may prove an incalculable boon to millions yet unborn in the Celestial Empire.

As soon as he was able to resume work, Mr. Murray obtained employment as a rural letter-carrier in the neighborhood of Glasgow, but was subsequently employed by the National Bible Society of Scotland as a colporteur. At this time his remarkable facility for languages attracted the notice of some of the directors, and it was arranged that he should attend classes at the college, though his studies were not allowed to interfere with his regular work. All day long he travelled with his Bible wagon, rising daily at three o'clock, even on the chill winter mornings, in order to prepare for his classes at eight and nine o'clock A.M., and then begin again a new day's work of book-selling.

During this period, apparently so fully occupied, he found time for an additional study, his interest having been aroused by seeing so many blind persons come to purchase books printed on Moon's system. Having mastered this, he took lessons in Professor Bell's system of Visible Speech, and also in Braille's system of reading and writing for the blind, by means of embossed dots.

Erelong he was sent, as the society's agent, to Pekin, where his work as a colporteur was at first very discouraging, but has of late years proved remarkably successful, and has included several very highly encouraging Bible expeditions into Mongolia.

On arriving in China, Mr. Murray found that the system of Visible Speech (which he had acquired as an interesting curiosity) actually facilitated his own study of the very difficult language ; so he noted down the value of every sound he mastered, and thus ascertained that these are really limited to 420—a very goodly number, as compared with our own 24, but a mere trifle, as compared with the 4,000 distinct and crabbed characters which every Chinaman must acquire, before he can read such a book as the Bible in ordinary print. Even a child must master 1,200 characters before he can read the [Chinese] equivalent of "Jack the Giant-Killer."

The continual sight of the innumerable beggars, whom Mr. Murray met at every turn, awakened an unspeakable longing to devise some means of alleviating their hard lot ; and it was evident that, in a country where literature is held in such high honor, the power of reading would be simply an incalculable boon. He therefore set himself to reduce the 420 sounds to a system of equivalent dots, and his patient ingenuity was at length rewarded by finding that he was thus able accurately to represent the perplexing sounds of the language, and to replace the bewildering multitude of Chinese characters.

Having overcome these apparently insuperable difficulties, his next care was to test the system and prove whether even the most sensitive fingers could learn to discriminate 400 separate arrangements of dots.

Selecting a poor little orphan blind beggar, who was lying almost naked in the streets, and who, nothwithstanding his loneliness and poverty, always seemed cheerful and content, Mr. Murray took him in hand, washed and clothed him, and undertook to feed and lodge him, provided he would apply himself in earnest to mastering this new learning. Naturally, the boy was delighted, and we can imagine his ecstasy and the thankful gladness of his teacher, when, *within six weeks*, he was able not only to read fluently, but to write with remarkable accuracy ! To complete the experiment, two blind beggar-men were next induced to learn, the boy acting as teacher. One was able to read well within two months ; the other more slowly, but also with great pleasure.

It was at this stage that I made their acquaintance ; and it struck me as intensely pathetic, as we stood at the door of a dark room—for it was night—to hear what I knew to be words of Holy Scripture read by men who, less than four months previously, sat begging in the streets in misery and rags, and on the verge of starvation. No wonder that, to their countrymen, it should appear little short of miraculous that blind beggars should be thus cared for by foreigners and endowed with apparently supernatural powers : consequently, when one was sent out to read in the street, in company with a native colporteur, crowds gathered around to see and hear, and to buy the Book.

From the singular reverence of the Chinese for all written characters, and for those who can read them, it is evident that a blind reader there occupies a very different position to that of the men whom we are accustomed to see in our own streets. Furthermore, in no other country have so many attributed the conviction which has induced them to face all the persecution which almost invariably follows the renunciation of idolatry solely to their solitary study of some copy of the Scriptures which has casually fallen into their hands. Hence it is obvious that, as assistant colporteurs, blind Scripture-readers may prove most valuable agents in spreading the knowledge of Christian truth.

For further information apply to Mr. William J. Slowan, secretary of the National Bible Society of Scotland, 224 West George St., Glasgow.—MISS C. F. GORDON-CUMMING, in *The* (London) *Christian.*

A visitor to a hospital for the insane was introduced to one of the patients. Said the patient :

"How did you come here ?"

"I rode on horseback," replied the gentleman.

"Ah, that is the difference between you and me. You ride a horse, and I ride a hobby. The difference is, that you can get down off a horse, but not off a hobby, and that is what brought me here."

A gentleman asked a convict in a penitentiary :

"What is the charge against you ?"

"Oh," he said, "I am the victim of a little mistake. I borrowed a horse, to try him, and agreed that, if he suited me, I would buy him. He didn't suit me, so I sold him."

At the meeting of the American Bar Association at Saratoga, in 1886, Mr. Charles Borcherling, of New Jersey, offered the following resolution, which was referred to a committee : "*Resolved*, That this association recommends to Congress the passage of an act creating a penal colony of the United States, and to which each of the States and Territories of the United States shall have the right and power to convey all such criminals as may have been convicted twice, and whose sentences shall not be less, on the second conviction, than five years' penal service." The Bar Association will do well to canvass this matter thoroughly, before committing itself to any scheme of the sort. The arguments against it are, in our judgment, conclusive.

MASSAGE.

There are four terms which are expressive of the modes of imparting energy by manipulations or massage: *effleurage, petrissage, tapotement, friction.*

Effleurage.

I now have my right hand in the position for effleurage. I place my fingers and my thumb(which you see are fully extended) upon this man's chest, and I draw them slowly and lightly from above downwards. I now make a return movement quickly with the palm of my hand. And I again make my first movement, as you see, with the tips of my fingers and with the outer edge of my thumb.

These manipulations, constituting effleurage, are made with the tips of the fingers and the palm of the hand. This form of stroking movement with the fingers may be done softly or lightly, or with considerable energy. You will find that *effleurage*, performed as lightly as possible, after *petrissage*, for some few minutes, will have a decidedly soothing influence; and a vast deal of vital energy can unquestionably be thrown into the body of the patient in this way. Such forms of massage, when gently and continuously carried over the forehead, the closed eyes, and the cheeks, carry the patient from a state of mere repose to hypnotism, and he not unfrequently passes from this state into one of tranquil sleep.

You will, if you please, perceive that I never absolutely remove my hands from the patient's body; and, in every form of massage, you must as far as possible pay attention to this.

Your centripetal movements, or those which are directed towards the centre of the body, are those in which the greatest amount of energy is and should be exerted, because they are made in the direction of the venous blood and lymph stream.

Again, effleurage can be thus performed—and very powerful strokes can be made—by the knuckles and the palmar aspect of the wrist. I place my knuckles upon this man's chest—so—and I draw them towards myself softly, or with considerable force, just as I please; but the action is slow and deliberate. When I get to the end of my journey, I raise my knuckles and depress my wrist, which I carry quickly—thus—over the ground that my knuckles have just traversed.

In massaging, you must remember that you can make the palmar aspect of your wrist the centre for some well-regulated and energizing movements. For instance, if I wanted to massage deeply, and with considerable pressure, I should place the palmar aspect of my wrist upon the part to be massaged, with my finger-tips horizontal to my wrist, in this manner: I should then cause my wrist to partially rotate upon its own axis, guiding my fingers to perform a semicircle—so.

If you have a large and powerful thumb, you will find it exceedingly useful, and capable of good work; it is astonishing how much power can be exercised by the thumb. I place my finger-tips upon this man's chest, and I make them a fixed point. I then, you see, am able to work my thumb with considerable force and energy, in this manner, over a given area of about 90°.

Well, now, there is another form of *effleurage* with which I am familiar, and which I find very useful, for two reasons; first, because it readily covers a wide area, and second, because it affords a means of relief to the masseur. I have bared my arm purposely to show you exactly what I mean. Supposing I had been massaging this man's back by the process of *effleurage* and *petrissage*, but wished to continue with my work, and my hands felt tired and cramped, I should then manipulate with the ulnar and flexor side of my arm, in the manner I now show you. You will do well to bear this in mind, for I have frequently given myself great relief by adopting this mode of procedure.

Petrissage.

The next form of massage, to which I must now draw attention, is what we term *petrissage*. We look to this mode of manipulation to produce effects which no other form of massage can produce.

I take this bit of skin between my thumb and forefinger, and I grip it firmly—in fact I pinch it; I then roll it between my finger and thumb in a manner somewhat similar to what one does in making a cigarette. This is the most simple demonstration of *petrissage*. Pinching, pressing, and squeezing are its essential and main attributes.

If you want to petrissage a mass of muscle, you grip it firmly in the palm of the hand, in the same way that you see me grip the muscle of this man's leg. You then make your way onwards or upwards from the periphery to the trunk (centripetally), like climbing up the rails of a ladder. The same grip can, of course, be made—thus—between the fingers and the thumb, subjecting the parts to firm pressure and rolling and pinching them at the same time. By this you exert a powerfully exciting action upon the lymphatic system and the capillary system of vessels, and so render active a deep-seated and sluggish circulation, and stimulate the venous blood onward towards the heart.

When both hands are employed, they move simultaneously and in the same direction, after this manner.

As in all other forms of massage, the movements must be uniform, steady, and defined. Don't jump about all over the limb, but proceed in the way you see me now—inch by inch, and without taking your hand from the part.

By this means you can not fail to rouse dormant nerve and energy, to make inactivity active, to produce a rise in temperature, and relieve dull and wearying muscular pains, and to restore nerve-energy and power in the muscle. This particular kind of massage relieves what is so common in deep-seated muscles, namely, muscular stagnation. By relieving this in the manner just described, you make the muscular structure receptive of the nerve-force which is sent to it, and thus it is rendered toned and active. This muscular stagnation may be instanced in a thousand ways, but it is particularly experienced by ladies at the change of life. When the circulation is interfered with, muscular stagnation is one of the commonest symptoms. The arms feel heavy, so that to brush the hair can be scarcely accomplished; the legs feel so heavy, so wooden and lead-like, that it becoms a task to draw one leg after the other. Now *petrissage* has been, in my hands, of signal service in these cases, and its use here is most simple; the muscles are relieved of congestion, and the normal nerve-force is expended equally and impartially to every demand made upon the nervous centres.

I cannot leave this form of massage without drawing your attention to some remarks upon this subject by Dr. Weir Mitchell, of Philadelphia, in a very interesting little book entitled "Fat and Blood, and How to Make Them." On page 54 of this book (which I should advice you to get and read), you will find the following statement: "After a few days of the milk diet, with which my treatment ordinarily begins, the masseur or masseuse is set to work. An hour is chosen midway between two meals, and, the patient lying in bed, the manipulator starts at the feet." Here I will demonstrate to you upon this patient what Dr. Mitchell has put into words. I gently but firmly pinch up the skin of the foot and roll it lightly between my fingers. I then, as you see, take each toe separately and bend it at every joint. I then knead the muscles, and work with the finger-tips and the thumb between the bones. And I finish with the foot by seizing it with both hands and rolling it about—so. Now I deal with the ankle, working away at all the crevices between the articulating bones, and putting the joint into every possible position. The leg is now treated, in this way, by surface pinching; then by deeper grasping of the areolar tissue; and last, by industrious and deeper pinching of the large muscular masses of the calf—and for this purpose I put the limb in a position of the utmost relaxation.

You will observe that my grasp of the muscles is momentary, and that I use both my hands for the large muscle of the calf and thigh, the one contracting as the other loosens its grip. In treating the firm muscles in front of the leg, the fingers are made to roll the muscle under the cushions of the fingers-tips. At brief intervals, I seize the limb in both hands, and lightly run the grasp upwards, so as to favor the flow of venous blood-currents, and I then return again to the kneading of the muscles.

I have now massaged this limb according to the directions laid down by Dr. Mitchell, and it is as perfect as any mode of massage can be; and you can judge for yourself if it is not the outcome of practical experience.

Tapotement.

The last form of massage which I think it worth my while to bring before your notice is called *tapotement*, which means tapping, or percussing, or flagellating. The tapping may be done with the hand nearly closed, as mine is now; or it may be done with an india-rubber ball fixed to the end of a piece of cane; or it may be done with a cat-of-nine-tail, or by the aid of Dr. Granville's perceutor.

You know what an astonishing effect tickling has upon a child. For instance, a child is moody, peevish. and fretful—due, probably, to the inhibition of some nerve by dyspepsia or constipated bowels. If you threaten the child with punishment, or send it to bed, or give it some task, you are really feeding the child's disease; whereas, on the other hand if you cheer up the little thing, and give it a good tickling, you stimulate the child's nervous system. It actually laughs until it cries; its kidneys are stimulated, and its bowels too, and its bad temper vanishes.

The great value of *tapotement* is for the muscles of the loins and the back, You cannot well get at the deeper layers of these muscles by pinching, or even kneading; but you can stimulate them by thumping and percussion in the manner I now show you.

After the parts have been massaged, I quiet agree with Dr. Weir Mitchell that they should be lubricated with fresh cocoa oil, which keeps the skin in a smooth, soft, and supple state, and also helps the part to retain the heat which has been generated. As soon as a part has been manipulated, it should be covered with flannel.

There is another point referred to by Dr. Mitchell, which is borne out in my own practice, namely, that "the early use of massage is apt in some nervous women to cause increased nervousness, and even loss of sleep; but these symptoms may safely be disregarded, because they pass away in a few days, and very soon the patient begins to find the massage delightfully soothing, and to complain when it is omitted."

I could say a great deal to you about the value of electricity in connection with massage, and my growing experience leads me to the conclusion that massage and electricity should always be employd in association. If I get hold of a difficult case, which does not yield to electricity alone, I employ massage, and, by the aid of the two, I am usually successful. On the other hand, if massage alone does not answer, I associate it with electricity, and with like results.

—Dr. Stretch Dowse, before the Trained Nurses' Club, London.

THE INDETERMINATE SENTENCE ABROAD.

The *Bulletin de la Société des Prisons* reprints the paper prepared for the Rome Congress by G. A. Hamel, Professor of Law in the University of Amsterdam. It is too long for us to reproduce it here, but interesting and important, since it deals with the question of sentences for crime with reference to their quality of fixedness—a question which is rapidly coming to the front, the world over. There are two distinct theories of penalties for crime: one that the degree of punishment, regarded in the light of retribution, should be apportioned to the criminality of acts committed; the other, that punishment has reference not so much to the offence as to the offender, and that it should cease whenever it has accomplished its purpose in the protection of society, but no sooner. The tendency of modern thought appears to be in the direction of replacing the former theory by the latter. The former theory logically demands exact and unalterable penalties, but the newer view is more in accord with a flexible sentence, terminable, after a period of probation, in the absolute discharge of the convict, whenever it shall be reasonably apparent that society has little or nothing further to fear from him.

We pass over von Hamel's reference to the more important German works of late date on crime and criminals.* He reserves his highest praise for the treatise by Dr. O. Mittelstädt against penalties privative of liberty, and among the interesting publications to which that has given rise, he especially praises the work of Dr. Kræpelin, in favor of indeterminate sentences, which, he says, by its categorical propositions on the subject of penal reform, has contributed to the sharp discrimination between tendencies and theories.† He is evidently much impressed also by the views of his distinguished colleague, Dr. Franz von Liszt, of the University of Marbourg. Von Liszt holds that originally punishment, under its primitive form of private vergeance, and later under that of expulsion (*la mise hors la loi*), is a natural reaction, the effect of the instinctive tendency to defend one's person, one's family, one's race or species, against all attacks which seem to menace the condition of their continued existence. In the course of time, this impulsive reaction develops into an act of the will; the efficacy of such reaction is apprehended and becomes an object of volition. In other words, what was at first an unconscious reaction passes into the domain of consciousness; but the motor principle remains the same, namely, the accomplishment of an end, the desire to protect conditions which are believed to be vital. Accordingly, there can be no scientific theory of the basis of criminal jurisprudence, either logical or ethical, which does not at bottom seek for some philosophic formula in which to clothe the idea which primitive nations and individuals denominated revenge. But the notion of vengeance has gradually become less prominent, and that of protection has become proportionately more prominent, though both are united in any correct theory of the meaning and intent of the criminal law, and there is not the opposition between them which a shallow thinker might imagine to exist.

The measure of rightful punishment, then, is found in the measure of protection which it affords to individuals and to society. So much punishment is just, as is necessary; no more, and no less. To determine what degree of punishment is necessary, we must accordingly determine first what degree of punishment is efficacious.

Precisely at this point, we are struck with the fact that all criminals are not equally affected by punishment in a given form or amount. Professor von Wahlberg, of the University of Vienna, distinguished, at the Stockholm Congress, two groups of malefactors—habitual criminals and occasional offenders. But Prof. von Liszt subdivides the first of these groups into two—habitual criminals who are, in fact, incorrigible, and habitual criminals who are susceptible of reformation. Thus he makes a threefold division of violators of the criminal law, and insists that there are three corresponding varieties of treatment adapted to them severally, namely: for the incorrigible, incapacitation; for the corrigible, reformation; and, for the occasional or accidental criminal, simple repression. This analysis and conclusion Prof. von Hamel accepts and adopts as his own.

The application of these distinctions in practice by the courts is a task of some difficulty. To whatever extent discretionary power is conferred upon judges to pronounce more or less severe sentences for crime, punishment tends to become unequal, uncertain, and unjust; but to deprive judges of all discretion, and apportion punishment by statute, as is done in some penal codes, is equally unjust and inefficacious in its application to individuals.

A statutory definition of habitual criminals is essential. A catalogue must be made of crimes to be included under this definition; the law must determine whether, in order to constitute a habitual criminal, the same individual must be reconvicted of the same offence, or of a similar offence, or of any offence contained in the list; it must also fix the duration of the interval between two convictions which shall suffice to bring the convict under the operation of the statute. It is even more important that it should make the increased penalty to be pronounced upon recidivists obligatory, and not leave it to the discretion of the judge.

But the law can not undertake to say what habitual criminals are, and who are not, susceptible of reformation. Prof. von Hamel would leave the determination of this point to the courts. The difficulty of deciding it is apparent to him, but his suggestion as to the method of overcoming it does not appear to us to be very practical. He would cut the sentence in two, and the convict should first be required to serve the regular term of imprisonment for his crime; during such term his conduct should be observed, his character studied, and his antecedents inquired into; his liability to further punishment should depend on the issue of a second proceeding, also in court, in which the criminal should have the right of defence, etc. If it is the judgment of the court, at such hearing, that the convict is "incorrigible," he should be remanded to prison for life; if, on the contrary, he is adjudged to be "corrigible," his second sentence should be to imprisonment for an indefinite period. By the "indeterminate" sentence, however, von Hamel understands, (as we do), commitment for life, and with no maximum limit, but subject to the right reserved to the government to grant to the prisoner a conditional release, whenever it shall appear, not that he has "reformed"—a vague term, insusceptible of legal or judicial interpretation,—but that it is safe to permit him to go at large. For the corrigible, as for the incorrigible, there should be, in the first instance, a minimum sentence which should be obligatory. But, after the expiration of such minimum term, the corrigible should from time to time, at stated intervals, be brought into court, and the court—not the prison officials, who are only expert witnesses—should, after a full hearing, not only from the prison authorities, but from the prisoner himself and other persons, grant him his conditional discharge or remand him to prison, as the case might be. The occasional criminal, on

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* *Binding*: "Strafgesetzgebung, Strafjustiz und Strafrechtswissenschaft in normalen Verhältniss zu einander," in the *Zeitschrift für die ges. Strafrechtsgewissenschaft*, I., p. 4.
Von Bar: "Handbuch des deutschen Strafrechts," I., 1882.
Von Liszt: "Reichsstrafsrecht," 1881, and "Der Zweckgedanke im Strafrecht," in the *Zeitschrift f. d. ges. S.*, III., p. 1.
Von Lilienthal: "Beitrage zur Lehre vom Collectivdelict," Leipzig, 1878.
Merkel: "Ueber den Idealismus in der Strafrechtswissenschaft," in the *Zeitschrift f. d. ges. S.*, I., p. 551.
H. Meyer: "Lehrbuch des deutschen Strafrechts," 3d edition, 1882, and "Die Gerechtigkeit im Strafrecht," in the *Gerichtssaal*, XXXIII., pp. 101-153 and 161-188.
Mittelstädt: "Gegen die Freiheitsstrafen," 1879, and "Für and wieder die Freiheitstrafen," in the *Zeitschrift f. d. ges. S.*, II., p. 419.
Sodtag: "Beiträge zur Lehre von der Strafe," in the *Zeitschrift f. d. ges. S.*, I. p. 180.
Schwartze: "Freiheitstrafe," 1880.
Ullmann: "Zur Lehre von der Strafe," in the *Gerichtssaal*, XXXIV., p. 29.
Wilbert: "Das Postulat der Abschaffung des Strafmasses," in the *Zeitschrift f. d. ges. S.*, II., p. 473.

† "Die Abschaffung des Strafmasses. Ein Vorschlag zur Reform der heutigen Strafrechtspflege", von Dr. Med. Emil Kræpelin, Irrenarzt, Stuttgart, 1880.

the other hand, should receive a definite sentence, not to exceed a maximum term prescribed by statute ; but the law should prescribe no minimum term for offenders of this class ; the minimum should be left wholly to the discretion of the court.

Remarks.

It is of interest to note the differences between the conception of the indeterminate sentence in the mind of this able jurist and that which prevails among American penologists. Von Hamel is right in supposing that, properly defined, the indeterminate sentence has no maximum term. But the so-called indeterminate sentence, of which most American writers speak, is a sentence which has a maximum term, and, therefore, is not strictly indeterminate, but variable within certain limits to be defined by the criminal code. The indeterminate sentence, in the European sense, is therefore applicable, as von Hamel contends, not to occasional but to habitual offenders. In the American sense, however, it is applicable to first offenders, but not to recidivists, for whom the maximum term prescribed for the former class is too low to protect society against their depredations and injuries. The American mind gravitates toward an irrevocable life-sentence for the latter. There are many who feel that life-long imprisonment is too severe for all recidivists, and they would give even to life-prisoners the privilege of the ticket-of-leave. In this they have the partial support of von Hamel, who agrees that not all recidivists should be imprisoned for life ; but he proposes to distinguish between the corrigible and the incorrigible at the time of second sentence. With the most profound respect for his opinion, we are constrained to differ with him in this conclusion. There is, in our judgment, but one test of corrigibility—namely, amenability to a reformatory discipline while in prison. This test should be applied to all first offenders, and we are unable to see why it should not be applied also to all habitual criminals. The test within the walls of a penitentiary should be supplemented by a test without the walls. The re-imprisonment or final discharge of the convict should be made to depend upon the manner in which he endures this double test. We, therefore, think von Hamel's scheme too restricted in its application, not sufficiently simple, and not sufficiently radical.

The value of international study of the problems of crime, poverty, and suffering is not yet apparent to many. We are deeply impressed with it. If the public shared our convictions on this subject, there would be no difficulty in maintaining the RECORD. We have much to learn from European experience and scholarship. On the other hand, Europe might learn more from America than she knows or believes to be possible. On this particular question, America is undoubtedly in advance of Europe. The question there has not passed the stage of philosophic speculation. With us, at Elmira and elsewhere, it has reached that of successful experiment. But the Elmira experiment has as yet attracted but little notice abroad, and we rarely meet with any reference to it, even in books and journals which deal with this particular aspect of the subject.

One other remark. We do not agree with von Hamel that prison boards are not proper agencies for the granting of paroles to prisoners. That may be true in Europe, but note on this side of the Atlantic. We make a parole depend wholly upon the prisoner's record, and nothing is gained by submitting the record to the inspection of a court or of the governor or the head of a bureau. But it is not yet clear, even to Americans, and still less is it apparent to Europeans, that the vital feature of a reformatory prison discipline, such as will serve the purpose of a test of corrigibility, is the educational feature. Mr. Brockway's highest merit is the enthusiastic tenacity with which he has grasped this thought, and can not be shaken from it. Neither good conduct, in the sense of obedience to prison rules, nor labor, measured by the amount and character of product, can alone furnish the test which is essential. Good conduct in prison is often, if not usually, the sheerest hypocrisy. Labor may be merely mechanical and perfunctory. But in the schoolroom the teacher can not be deceived as to the progress made by any pupil under his charge ; neither can the prisoner receive an education, be awakened from intellectual sloth, above all, have his curiosity aroused to solve purely moral problems for himself, and go out from the prison the same man that he was when he entered it. Mr. Brockway has also shown the wit and wisdom to appreciate the value of what is sometimes termed the "new" education, the ultimate purpose of which is the development of character ; which seeks to teach men to think, rather than to receive and appropriate the conclusions of other men's minds ; which has regard to the symmetrical unfolding of the entire nature of a man ; and which rests upon the foundation principle that we learn most and retain best by doing ; that action is as essential to education in the highest sense as hearing or seeing. Under his system, it would be as absurd to refer the question of the prisoner's conditional release to a court, as it would be to make the discharge of a recovered lunatic from a hospital for the insane dependent upon the verdict of a jury.

THE MORAL INFLUENCE OF PRISONS ON PRISONERS.

PRINCE KROPOTKINE'S VIEWS.

To improve prisons substantially, I might suggest, of course, that each prison should be provided with a Pestalozzi for governor and sixty Pestalozzis more as warders. But I am afraid the prison administration would answer me as Alexander II. answered once on an administrative report : "Where shall I find the men ?" Because really, as long as our prisons remain prisons, Pestalozzis will be exceptionally rare among the governors and warders, while retired soldiers will furnish the greater number.

And the more one reflects about the partial improvements which might be made ; the more one considers them under their real, practical aspect, the more one is convinced that the few which can be made will be of no moment, while serious improvements are impossible under the present system. Some thoroughly new departure is unavoidable. The system is wrong from the very foundation.

One fact—the most striking in our penal institutions—is, that as soon as a man has been in prison, there are three chances to one that he will return thither very soon after his release. Figures tell us loudly enough that the supposed double influence of prisons—the deterring and the moralizing—exist only in the imagination of lawyers. Nearly one half of all people condemned by the courts are regularly released prisoners.

More than that. It has been remarked throughout Europe that if a man has been kept in prison for some minor offence, his return to prison will be under a graver charge. His theft will be more refined ; and, if he has been condemned for an assault, he has a serious chance of returning to the court as a murderer. The most terrible schemes of brutal murder are mostly devised in prisons ; and when public indignation is stirred by some exceptionally brutal deed, in most cases its origin may be traced, either directly or indirectly, to prison education ; the deed has been committed by a released prisoner, or at the instigation of such a man.

Whatever the schemes hitherto introduced either for the seclusion of prisoners, or for the prevention of conversation, prisons have remained nurseries of criminal education. The schemes of well-meaning philanthropists, who fancied they could make so many reformatories out of our convict establishments, have proved a complete failure ; and while official literature tries to make light of this characteristic feature of our penal institutions, those governors of prisons who see and tell things as they are—not as it is desired they should be represented—frankly avow that prisons have not moralized anybody, but have more or less demoralized all those who have spent a number of years there.

It can not be otherwise ; and we cannot but acknowledge that it *must* be so, as soon as we analyze the effect the prison exercises on the prisoner.

First of all, none of the condemned—a few exceptions apart—recognize that their condemnation is just. I do not affirm that each prisoner considers his deeds as a quite honorable pursuit ; but it is undoubtedly true that he does not consider himself less honorable than those who sell turnips instead of orange marmalade, and fuchsine-colored, alcoholized water instead of wine, who rob shareholders, who traffic by a thousand means on the cupidity and ignorance of the public, and who nevertheless enjoy the esteem of society. "Steal, but do not be caught !" is a common saying in prisons all over the world ; and it is useless to try to combat this watchword as long as in the wide world of "business"

transactions the border-land between honorable and dishonorable remains as wide as it is now.

The teaching which the prisoner receives within the prison is not much better than that given by the outer world. Both in the administration and in the commercial undertakings which are carried on in big prisons, there are invariably so many small frauds, that I often heard at Clairvaux: "The real thieves, sir, are those who keep us here—not those who are in."

Much has been written about the moralizing effects of labor—of manual labor—and surely I should be the last to deny them. To keep prisoners without any occupation, as they are kept in Russia, means utterly to demoralize them and to inflict on them a quite useless punishment, to kill their last energy, and to render them quite unable later to earn their living by work. But there is labor and labor. There is free labor, which raises the man, which releases his brain from painful or morbid thoughts, which makes him feel himself a part of the immense life of the world. And there is the forced labor of the slave, which degrades man, which is done reluctantly, only from fear of worse punishment; and such is prison-labor. I do not speak of so wicked an invention as the treadmill, which a man must move like a squirrel in a wheel, supplying a motive power which could be supplied otherwise at a much cheaper rate. I do not speak of picking oakum, which permits a man to produce in the course of a day the value of a farthing. As to these kinds of labor, the prisoners are fully entitled to consider them merely as the base revenge of a society which has done so little since their childhood to show them better ways towards a higher, more human life. Nothing is more revolting than to feel that one is compelled to work, not because somebody wants one's work, but merely to be punished.

Things do not stand better, however, with productive labor in prisons. In the world-market, where produce is bought only for the bargains that can be realized on sale and purchase, the state can seldom be a successful competitor. So it has been compelled to invite private employers to give occupation to prisoners. But, to attract such employers and to induce them to sink their money in factories, and to guarantee a certain amount of labor to a certain number of convicts, notwithstanding the fluctuations of the market—and this under such unfavorable circumstances as a prison and the prison-work of untrained laborers—the state has been compelled to concede the prisoners' labor for nearly nothing. Under such circumstances, the work which has no attractiveness in itself, because it gives no exercise to the mental faculties of the laborer, and is paid so badly, comes to be considered as a mere punishment.

In a prisoner's greyish life, which flows without passions and emotions, all those best feelings which may improve human character soon die away. I can think of no better comparison for the state of a prisoner than that of wintering in the Arctic regions. Read reports of Arctic expeditions—the old ones, those of the good-hearted Parry, or of the elder Ross. When going through them, you feel a note of physical and mental depression pervading the whole diary, and growing more and more dreary, until sun and hopes reappear on the horizon. That is the state of a prisoner. The brain has no longer the energy for sustained attention. Thought is less rapid, or, rather, less persistent; it loses its depth. An American report mentioned last year that while the study of languages usually prospers with the prisoners, they are mostly unable to persevere in mathematics; and so it is. It seems to me that this depression of healthy nervous energy can be best accounted for by the want of impressions. In ordinary life thousands of sounds and colors strike our senses: thousands of small varied facts come within our knowledge, and spur the activity of the brain. Nothing of the kind strikes the prisoner: his impressions are few, and always the same. I can not forget the eagerness with which I observed, when taking a walk in the fortress yard, the changes of color on the gilt needle of the fortress—its rosy tints at sunset, its bluish color in the morning, its changing aspect on cloudy and bright days, in the morning and evening, winter and summer. It was the only thing which changed its aspect. The appearance of a parrot in the yard was a great event. It was a new impression. This is probably also the reason that all prisoners are so fond of illustrations; they convey new impressions in a new way.

There is another important cause of demoralization in prisons which cannot be too much insisted upon, as it is common to all prisons and inherent in the system of deprivation of liberty itself. All transgressions against the established principles of morality can be traced to a want of firm Will. Most of the inmates of our prisons are people who have not had firmness enough to resist the temptations that surrounded them, or to master a passionate impulse that momentarily overpowered them. Now, in prison, as in a monastery, the prisoner is secluded from all temptations of the outer world. His intercourse with other men is so limited and so regulated, that he seldom feels the influence of strong passion. But, precisely in consequence of that, he has almost no opportunity for exercising and reinforcing the firmness of his Will. He is a machine.

This fact, in my opinion (and it seems to me that there can be no two opinions in the matter), is the strongest condemnation of all systems based on depriving the condemned man of his liberty. The origin of the systematic suppression of all individual will in the prisoner, the systematic reduction of men to the level of unreasoning machines, carried on throughout the long years of imprisonment, is easily explained. It grew from the desire of preventing any breaches of discipline, and of keeping the greatest number of prisoners with the least possible amount of warders. And we may see, throughout the bulky literature of "prison-discipline," that the greatest admiration is bestowed precisely on those systems which have obtained the results of discipline with the least possible number of warders. The ideal of our prisons would be 1,000 automatons, rising and working, eating and going to bed, by electric currents transmitted to them from a single warder. It is not to be wondered at that men accustomed to be mere machines do not prove to be the men whom society needs.

There are few who would now dare to affirm that prisons ought only to exercise a deterrent influence, without caring for the moral improvement of the prisoners. But what are we doing to achieve this last end? Our prisons are made for degrading all who enter them. Everybody knows the influence of a decent dress. Even an animal is ashamed to appear amidst its like, if its coat renders it conspicuous and ridiculous. A cat, which a boy would have painted with yellow and black stripes, would be ashamed to appear in this guise amidst other cats. But men begin by giving a fool's dress to those whom they pretend to moralize. The prisoner is no longer a man in whom any feeling of self-respect is permitted to exist. He is a thing, a mere number B 24, and he will be treated as a numbered thing. If he is permitted to have a walk, his walk will not be like that of other men. If he yields to the most human of all desires—that of communicating an impression, or a thought, to a fellow-creature—he will commit a breach of discipline. Before he entered the prison he may have felt reluctance to lie; here he *will* lean to lie and deceive, until lying and deceit become his second nature. He may be sad or gay, good- or bad-tempered; he must not show it. He must have no feelings. He must *not* be a man; so it is ordained by the prison rules. But woe betide him, if by ill-luck the feeling of human dignity awakens within him!

Man is man; the warder as well as the prisoner. Compelled as they are to live in the midst of a hostile camp of prisoners, the warders cannot be models of kindness and humanity. To the league of the prisoners they oppose the league of the warders. And as they hold the power, they abuse it like all those who hold power in their hands.

A rancorous feeling against a society which always was but a stepmother to him grows within the prisoner. He accustoms himself to hate—cordially to hate—all those "respectable" people, who so wickedly kill his best feelings in him.

Not only does the prison develop in its inmates exasperation against society; not only does it systematically kill in them every feeling of self-respect, dignity, compassion, and love, and favor the growth of opposite feelings: it inoculates the prisoner with vices which belong to the most abject category of reprobates. It is known in what threatening proportions crimes against decency are growing all over the Continent, as well as in Great Britain. Many causes contribute towards this growth; but amidst these various causes one occupies a marked rank: it is the pestilential influence of our prisons. In this direction, the deteriorating influence of prisons on society is felt perhaps more strongly than in any other. The facts which we came across, during our prison life, surpass all that the most frenzied imagination could invent. One must have been for long years in a prison, secluded from all higher influences and abandoned to one's own and that of a thousand convicts' imagination, to come to the incredible state of mind which is witnessed among some prisoners. And I suppose that I shall only add what will be supported by all intelligent and frank governors of prisons, if I say that the prisons are *the* nurseries of the most revolting category of breaches of moral law. I shall not enter into details upon this subject, only too lightly treated now in a certain kind of literature. I only wish to add that those fall into gross error who imagine that the complete seclusion of prisoners and cellular imprisonment can promise any improvement in that special direction. A perverse turn of imagination is the real cause of all like cases, and the cell is the best means for giving to imagination such a turn. As to how far imagination can go in that direction, even alienists, I suppose, do not suspect it; to know it, one must spend several months in a prisoner's cell, and enjoy the full confidence of his neighbors.

On the whole, cellular imprisonment, which has so many advocates now, would be merely a useless cruelty, and a powerful instrument in weakening still more the bodily and mental energy of the prisoners. Experience all over Europe, and the dreadful proportion of cases of insanity which have been witnessed everywhere that cellular imprisonment has been resorted to for any length of time, are conclusive in this respect; and one cannot but wonder how little experience has profited. For a man who has some occupation which may be a source of enjoyment to him, and whose mind is by itself a rich source of impressions; for a person who has nothing outside the prison to worry him, whose family life is happy, and who has no such mental preoccupations as might become a source of continuous pain to the mind, seclusion from human society may not be fatal, if it lasts only for a few months. But for those who can not live with their own thought, and especially for those whose relations with the outer world are not quite smooth, and who are worried by their own thoughts, even a few months of cellular imprisonment may prove a most fatal experiment.

A DIME CLUB.

Paris has a "dime club," as it were, that is a more sensible establishment than some far more expensive concerns. By paying half a franc—ten cents—one can wash his hands, have his boots blacked, his coat brushed, write letters, read all the leading continental and English newspapers, consult a reference library, and use a telephone. A dime club would be a good thing for any city.—*Our Monthly.*

THE RED FLOWER OF THE MADMAN.

By M. Garshine.

I.

"In the name of his majesty, the Czar, Peter the First, I order an immediate inspection of this asylum for the insane."

These words were uttered in a shrill, sharp voice. The secretary of the establishment, seated before a table stained with blotches of ink, and about to inscribe in an enormous register the name, age, etc., of the new patient, could not restrain a smile. As to the two young men that accompanied the madman, they did not feel much like laughing; they were hardly in a condition to keep on their legs, owing to the two nights they had passed on the railroad with the patient. At the station before the last, he had had a furious attack, and they had been obliged to procure in all haste a strait waistcoat in the city, and to force him into it with the assistance of the gendarmes and several employés of the road. In this manner they had brought him to the asylum.

His appearance was repulsive. A blouse of coarse cloth, widely open at the breast, covered his gray suit, which he had torn into shreds during his late outburst of frenzy. The long sleeves drew his arms across in front and were tied behind his back in a large knot. His red, inflamed eyes (he had not slept for ten days) glared with a fixed and haggard look; his lower lip writhed, jerked by a nervous spasm, and his curling hair hung in disorder over his forehead. He strode up and down the office with rapid steps, making the pavement resound loudly under his boots, casting defiant looks around him—on the boxes stuffed with dusty papers, on the furniture covered with waxed cloth, and on his companions.

"Lead him into the apartment to the right!"

"I know! I know! I was here, before last year. We passed in review the entire establishment. I know all; it will be difficult to conceal any thing from me, no matter what," said the patient.

He turned towards the door. The attendant opened it for him. With the same automatic step, firm and resounding, and holding high his uneasy head, he left the office and walked rapidly to the right, where the cells reserved for the insane were placed. His companions found it hard to keep up with him.

"Ring the bell!"

"I can't. You have tied my hands."

The attendant opened the door. They entered the mad-house.

It was an old building in massive stone and antiquated style. There were two immense halls. The dining-room and a room common to the quiet patients, a wide vestibule with a glass door, leading into a flower-garden; then about twenty separate cells, where ordinary patients were kept, formed the ground floor. Besides these, there were two other gloomy apartments; the one padded and lined with thick cushions, and the other wainscoted over the entire wall, where the patients were carried during their mad fits; and finally a vast room built with a cupola—the bath-room, with several huge bathing-tanks. The upper story was for women. A fearful noise of howls and cries could be heard.

The house had been designed for eighty patients, but as the surrounding districts had no similar institution, there were at present three hundred packed within its walls. In each of the narrow cells were four or five beds. In winter, when the patients could not go into the garden, and when the barred windows were hermetically closed, the air in the asylum was pestiferous and insufferably heavy.

The new patient was introduced into the bath-room. This apartment could not fail to make a painful impression on a man of sound mind: how much more painfully must it impress a diseased and irritable imagination. It was large and paved, with the ceiling in the form of a cupola, and lighted only on one side by a small window. The walls and arches were painted dark red.

In the dirty gray soil two enormous basins were hollowed out. They looked like two graves of an oval form. A big copper furnace, with cylindrical reservoir and a complete system of pipes for douching, occupied a space opposite the window. Every thing in this room had a strange, lugubrious aspect, as though contrived to produce a vivid impression on a sick brain. The attendant at the baths, a coarse and powerful Sokal, who never spoke a word, added not a little by his sinister face to the horror of the apartment.

When they had led the madman into his chamber to bathe him, and (following the sanitary method of the head physician) to apply a huge blister to the back of his neck, the patient was seized with horror, and fell into a terrible rage. Mad fancies, each more horrible than the other, hurtled and clashed in his brain. His hair stood erect; he was bathed in cold sweat.

What was this? A chamber of torture? A place of execution, where his enemies wished to get rid of him? Perhaps even—hell! And if it was hell! Then the idea shot through his brain that he was going to be questioned, as in the Middle Ages.

They undressed him, in spite of his desperate resistance. With a strength rendered triply great by his malady, he tore himself loose from the attendants and overturned them. At last he was thrown to the ground by four strong men, seized hand and foot, and lowered into the basin filled with hot water.

The water seemed to him boiling, and his poor sick brain engendered the idea that he was being subjected to torture by fire and water. The warm water entered his mouth. He stiffened himself and dealt blows and kicks about him, though held by the attendants. And in the midst of howlings, interrupted by endless lamentation, prayers burst from his lips at one moment, and at another blasphemies. He shouted until he could speak no more, and ended by moaning pitifully, with great burning tears rolling down his cheeks.

"Great and holy St. Gregory, into thy hands I commit my body. As to my spirit—no—oh, no!"

The keepers did not let go of him, although, thanks to the warm bath and the bladder full of ice that they had placed on his head, he had become a little calmer. However, when they had taken him out of the bath, and seated him on a stool in order to apply the big blister to the back of his neck, a remnant of his vigor reappeared, and the mad fancies took possession of him with renewed force.

"Why? why?" he howled, "I don't want to do harm to any one. Why do you torture me? Oh! oh! oh! God! You martyrs that have gone before me, deliver me!"

The burning of the plaster carried his madness to its climax. He beat the air anew with his feet and hands. The attendants could not master him. They stood there disheartened.

"There is nothing to do" said the attendant who directed the operation. "All must be destroyed."

The patient stared at these words. He was frightened. A trembling seized him.

"Destroyed? Destroy what? Me?" he thought.

Frightened to death, horrified, he closed his eyes. The attendant took a coarse napkin by both ends and rubbed him with it rapidly, pressing hard on the back of his neck, and tearing the plaster off with the skin. It stuck so well that a large and bleeding wound was formed.

The pain that the patient suffered, which would have exasperated a healthy man, seemed to the miserable madman unspeakable. With a desperate wrench of his back he escaped from the hands of the nurses, and threw himself on the stone pavement. Then he imagined that they had beheaded him. He wished to cry and groan, but he could not. The keepers laid him on a litter and bore him away. He fell into a deep sleep, a sleep so long and heavy, that it was like death.

II.

When he awoke, it was night. All was quiet. In the neighboring chamber the deep respiration of the slumbering patients could be heard; and, farther away, a madman that had been locked up in a dark cell talked loudly with himself in a monotonous tone, his voice pitched to a strange key. In the upper story, where the female department was, a contralto voice was singing an obscene song. He held his breath and listened. He felt weary; it seemed to him that all his limbs were broken, and he had such an agonizing pain at the back of his neck.

"Where am I? What has happened to me?" he thought.

Suddenly his mind became clear. He recalled distinctly every thing that had happened to him during the last year of his life. All, even to the minutest detail, came back to him. He knew that he was ill at that very moment, and he understood the nature of his disease. A procession of fantastic ideas, of insane words and actions, defiled through his mind. He recalled every thing, and a horrible chill shook him from head to foot.

"Well, it is finished at last," he murmured. "God be praised!"

And he fell asleep again.

The open window, guarded with iron bars, opened into a narrow and tortuous way that extended between the great buildings and a stone wall. This path was unused. It was invaded by a wilderness of wild bushes, among which an enormous thicket of lilacs stood in bloom at this moment. Behind the bushes, just in front of the window, rose a high, dark wall, over which the trees of the garden stretched their branches, lit up by the pale moonbeams.

To the right a wing of the asylum could be seen, quite white even in the shade, with its grated windows, behind which shone a light. To the left could be perceived the dim walls of the dead-house silvered with soft radiance. The moonbeams passing through the bars of the window shown dazzlingly upon the large stone flags of the floor, and bathed in a sparkling haze a part of the bed and the livid face and closed eyelids of the patient.

At this hour nothing in his appearance betrayed the madman. He was sleeping the profound and tranquil sleep of a martyr, without a dream, without the least movement, almost without breath.

He woke at moments with a perfectly sane and lucid mind. Then in the morning, when he reopened his eyes, he was mad.—From *The Cosmopolitan.*

(*To be continued.*)

A child's story, which always deeply impressed me, was written to tell how Misery came to remain so persistently in the world. After many adventures and many vain attempts to remove her, Death was forced to make a compact with her, that he would never come to take her away till she should have called for him three times. And Misery has never called. In our dealings with poverty and crime, the difficulties in the way of their suppression seem many times as great as if this story were really true. And yet philanthropy, private and public, can never abandon the hope that Christian endeavor will at last right every wrong, and drive Misery, with all her attendant evils, from the earth. This has been called the Age of Benevolence; but without this hope it will not surpass the ages which are gone.—Mrs. George S. Hunt.

THE INTERNATIONAL PRISON CONGRESS.

By a letter received from M. Galkine-Wraskoy, president of the International Prison Commission, with enclosures, we learn that the following information is desired from the United States for the use of the commission :

First. A copy of every report, document, act, etc., relating to prisons and reformatories, which has been issued since the date of the Rome Congress ; also reports, documents, acts, etc., on the subject of criminal legislation or preventive work. Under preventive work is included child-saving in all its forms, aid to discharged prisoners. police, etc. It is not designed to confine this request for information to public institutions ; it is addressed equally to the officers of private institutions and associations engaged in preventive work of any sort.

Second. A complete bibliography of recent books, pamphlets, and articles in reviews or magazines touching on any of the questions included under the prevention and punishment of crime.

Third. A list of newspapers and other periodicals which are devoted to criminal jurisprudence, prison discipline, and the prevention of crime.

Fourth. A list of prison societies, prisoners' aid associations, and social-science organizations which discuss the crime question.

We renew the request in a former number of the RECORD to officers of prisons, reformatories, child-saving institutions, and other associations coming within any of the categories above mentioned, to forward copies of reports, documents, laws, books, and articles desired by the International Commission to *Dr. Guillaume, Secretary, Neuchâtel, Switzerland.* Please attend to this, and do not wait for nor expect any other notice or request from any source. Attend to it at once, and you will not then forget all about it.

There are at least four foreign addresses to which all such documents, etc., should be sent. Cut this list out, or have a copy made, and paste it up over your desk, so that you will be constantly reminded of them.

Here they are :

M. le Dr. GUILLAUME, Secrétaire de la Commission pénitentiare internationale, Neuchâtel, Switzerland.

M. ERNEST PASSEZ, 217 Rue St.-Honoré, Paris, France. (M. Passez is the American correspondent for the French Prison Society.)

Herr Gefängnissdirektor Gustav Ekert, Freiburg i., Breisgau, Germany. (Editor of the *Blätter für Gefängnisskunde*, the organ of the German Association of Prison Wardens.)

All of these gentlemen read and speak English fluently, and desire that *every thing* relating to penal and reformatory work in America should be forwarded to them at the addresses given.

We take this occasion to call attention again to the *Bulletin de la Commission pénitentiaire internationale* (Bulletin of the International Prison Commission), published quarterly by Delachaux et Niestlél, Neuchâte from whom it can be ordered. The first number appeared in January, 1887. It is edited by a committee, and the price of subscription is 20 francs (four dollars) a year. This is the official journal of communication between all the nations of the world on matters of interest to prison officers and students of penology ; and a copy should be taken by every prison and reformatory in the United States.

PHYSICAL CULTURE IN A PRISON.

We are unable to see how any intelligent person can fail to be impressed by a statement in a recent number of *The Summary*, regarding the experimental class at the Elmira Reformatory who have been put through a course of physical training by Dr. Wey. The training included the Turkish bath, massage, calisthenics, and a special and restricted dietary.

The Summary observes :

A consideration of these statistics will reveal the fact that the progress made has not been sporadic, but that the development has been simultaneous and rapid along the threefold lines of physical, intellectual, and moral capacity. In labor, of course, the advance is not so pronounced as in the other cases, yet even here the improvement is steady, and, taking all things into consideration, most encouraging ; the general average before the class was formed being $2\frac{1}{8}\frac{1}{3}$, and after its disbandment $2\frac{9}{11}$ in a scale of three, representing a gain of 25 per cent. But the stride made in moral and intellectual development is enormous and hardly credible, until we find that this occurs in no isolated case, but is more or less marked in the whole class. In demeanor, the general average before the experiment was *minus* $2\frac{1}{3}$, but since it has risen to $2\frac{1}{3}$,—*a net gain of* 483 *per cent.* In the schools, these men could formerly only average $1\frac{8}{2}\frac{8}{2}$, while now their progress is testified to by a general average of $2\frac{8}{11}$, in a scale of three, or an improvement of just 100 per cent.

It goes without saying that these men have steadily progressed upwards in the grades. At the time of writing, eight members of the class have gained the first grade ; two are getting on well in the second ; while one has fallen back into the third once more. The men themselves are so changed as to be hardly recognizable. They were formerly the dullards of the flock, and they knew it, and every one of their actions betrayed knowledge of the fact, and its dispiriting influence. They lacked self-confidence, perseverance, the power to grasp even the simplest facts. It seemed almost a hopeless task to stir their dormant faculties, or to discover if in fact they possessed any. The stimulation of their physical powers has reacted on their mental organization. The inert, slouchy dullard has been drilled and brightened up into a smart and active man, with a growing intellectual capacity—the soul shining through the clay.

What may be the limits of such development, of course it is impossible, at this early date, to say. But that Physical Culture has made any development possible in such unpromising cases, only proves its intrinsic value as an agent in dealing with those who have hitherto been passed over as unimprovable, because hopeless dullards. The result of this little experiment is such as to enourage the hope that a real step has been gained toward the solution of our great social problem—the renovation of our weak and erring brethren. Another class has been started this year, and is at present in session, and gives every sign of being as successful as its predecessor.

UNIFORM PAUPER AND CRIMINAL STATISTICS.

The five secretaries of State Boards of Public Charities in the Northwest—Messrs. Hart (of Minnesota), Wright (of Wisconsin), Storrs (of Michigan). Byers (of Ohio), and Wines (of Illinois) met at the Russell House, in Detroit, March 7th, and continued in session until noon of the 9th. The object of their coming together was to agree, if possible, on uniform blanks for collecting the statistics of jails, police-stations, almshouses, and out-door relief in the five States named.

The foliowing are the forms agreed upon.

JAILS.

1. *General Questions.*—Does the sheriff reside in the jail? Name of the jailer? Does the jailer reside in the jail? Material of which the jail is constructed? Date of erection? Date of additions, if any? Original cost? Cost of additions? Is there a jail-yard, and of what material is it constructed? What improvements have been made during the year, and at what cost? What employment is furnished prisoners? Have religious services been held in the jail? If so, by whom and how often? What reading matter is furnished prisoners? and by whom furnished? Number of cells? Number of prisoners to a cell? Total number of prisoners who can be properly accommodated? Largest number of prisoners at any one time during the year?

2. *Financial Questions.*—Bill of the sheriff during the county fiscal year?

ITEM, to December 31, 1885.	No weeks' board furnished.	Price per week.	Extra charges for washing, mending, clothing, etc.	Total bill.
Against the county				
Against other counties				
Against the United States . . .				
Against the city or village for use of jail as lockup.				
Total				

3. *Movement of Population.*

A.—Prisoners Held for Trial.

(Including insane persons and witnesses.)

ITEM.	Male.	Female.	Total.
1. In jail at beginning of year			
2. Received during the year			
3. Total non-sentenced prisoners during the year			
4. Removed to State Prison			
5. Removed to Reform School			
6. Let out on bail			
7. Discharged on habeas corpus			
8. Discharged on nolle prosequi			
9. Discharged because the grand jury failed to indict			
10. Escaped during the year			
11. Died in jail during the year			
12. Otherwise removed from jail (including insane and witnesses)			
13. Total non-sentenced prisoners passed out of the jail for any cause			
14. Number of non-sentenced remaining in jail at close of year			

Note.—The difference between the totals in lines 3 and 13 should exactly equal the total in line 14.

B.—Prisoners Serving Sentence.

	Male.	Female.	Total.
1. In jail at beginning of year			
2. Received during the year			
3. Total sentenced prisoners			
4. Discharged because of expiration of sentence			
5. Discharged on payment of fines			
6. Escaped during the year (and not re-captured)			
7. Died in jail			
8. Otherwise removed from jail			
9. Total number passed out of jail			
10. Number of sentenced prisoners remaining in jail at close of year			

Note.—The difference between the totals in lines 3 and 9 should exactly equal the total in line 10.

4. *Additional Facts.*

	Male.	Female.	Total.
1. Number of foreign-born prisoners during the year			
2. Native-born prisoners during the year			
3. Prisoners who could not read and write (in any language)			
4. Prisoners habitually intemperate			
5. Prisoners during the year 16 years old and under 21			
6. Prisoners during the year under 16 years of age			
7. Prisoners escaped (whether recaptured or not)			
8. Persons detained as witnesses			
9. Vagrants received or lodged without being committed			
10. City or village prisoners not charged against the county			
11. Insane or idiotic persons in jail during the year			
12. Insane in jail at close of year			
13. Idiotic persons in jail at close of year			

5. *Alleged Offences of Prisoners Held for Trial.*

Offences.	Male.	Female.	Offences.	Male.	Female.
Crimes against the Person.			*Other Crimes.*		
Murder			Abortion		
Manslaughter			Adultery		
Rape			Seduction		
Assault with intent to kill			Keeping house of ill-fame		
Assault with intent to do bodily harm			*Etc.:*		
Etc.:					
			Offences against U. S. Laws.		
Crimes against Property.			Counterfeiting		
Arson			Violation of revenue law		
Burglary			Robbing the mail		
Embezzlement					
Forgery			*Etc.:*		
Grand larceny					
Horse-stealing					
Obtaining money or property under false pretences					
Robbery					
Etc.:					

6. *Offences of Prisoners Sentenced to Imprisonment in County Jail.*

Assault, or assault and battery			Malicious mischief		
Bastardy			Prostitution		
Contempt of court			Violation of liquor law		
Drunk, or drunk and disorderly			Vagrancy		
Fornication			Keeping house of ill-fame		
Petit larceny			*Etc.*		

Note.—Insert any other offences in writing. Do not count the same person twice unless twice a prisoner. If held for trial and afterward sentenced to jail, count him only as sentenced, and omit him from those held for trial.

POLICE-STATIONS AND LOCK-UPS.

1. *General Questions.*—Material of which the lock-up is constructed? Date of erection? Original cost? Number of cells? Size of cell? Size of outer room, if any? Number of inmates that can be properly accommodated? Largest number of inmates at any one time during the year? On what do prisoners sleep? (State kind of bed and kind of bedding.) Are mattresses used? and if so, of what material? How many blankets in the lock-up? and how many quilts? How often is bedding washed? How often is the lock-up scrubbed? What precautions are taken against fire? How heated? How ventilated?

2. *Movement of Population.*

Number of Inmates from Jan. 1 to Dec. 31, 18—.	Male.	Female.	Total.
1. Insane persons in lock-up			
2. City or village prisoners arrested by an officer and held for examination			
3. City or village prisoners serving sentence			
4. Tramps or vagrants lodged, but not held as prisoners			
5. County prisoners in lock-up			
Total			
Of the above there were under sixteen years of age			

ALMSHOUSES.

1. *General Questions.*—Name and post-office address of keeper? What permanent improvements have been made during the year? What are the terms of the contract with the keeper? What does the keeper furnish? (Food, clothing, medical services, medicines, burial expenses, farm implements, and stock, wages of help, etc.) What is furnished to the keeper by the county or town? (Amount of salary by year, or allowance per pauper, or allowance in gross, without reference to number of paupers; use of farm; board of family; number of horses, cows, etc., owned by town or county; etc., etc.) Or is the keeper employed at a salary, and all supplies furnished him? What is the salary paid? Does this salary include services of wife or other member of family? (State what is included.) Number of keeper's family receiving board at public expense. Does the keeper pay for help on farm or in kitchen from his own pocket? Give list of employés, with wages of each. Material of which almshouse is constructed; also of additions and separate buildings. How many inmates can be accommodated without overcrowding?

2. *Movement of Population.*

Inmates of Almshouse.	Male.	Female.	Total.
1. In the almshouse at beginning of year			
2. Received during the year			
3. Born in the almshouse during the year			
4. Total population during the year			
5. Discharged during the year			
6. Bound out or adopted during the year			
7. Ran away during the year			
8. Died during the year			
9. Total number discharged, etc.			
10. Number remaining at close of year			

NOTE.—The difference between items 4 and 9 in each column should exactly equal item 10 in the same column, and the sums of males and females should equal the total.

3. *Ages of Paupers.*

AGE.	On Hand at Beginning of Year.	Received, etc., during Year.	Disch'ged, etc., during Year.	Remaining at End of Year.
1. Under 5 years old				
2. 5 years old and under 16				
3. 16 years old and under 60				
4. 60 years old and over				
5. Number 5 years old and under 16, who were of sound mind and body				

4 *Causes of Pauperism.*

1. Insane inmates				
2. Epileptic inmates				
3. Idiotic inmates				
4. Disabled by old age				
5. Disabled by disease				
6. Disabled by deformity, or loss of limbs				
7. Disabled by blindness				
8. Deaf and dumb inmates				
9. Lying-in cases				
10. Inmates not disabled from any cause				

5. *Nativity of Paupers.*

AGE.	On Hand at Beginning of Year.	Received, etc., during Year.	Disch'ged etc., during Year.	Remaining at End of Year.
1. Inmates of native birth				
2. Inmates of foreign birth				
3. Inmates who have not a legal settlement in the county				
4. Inmates who have not a legal settlement in the State				

6. *Financial Statement.*

Cr.		
1. Amounts actually paid for salary overseer, $——; and matron, $——		
2. For wages of all other employés		
3. For medical attendance and medicines at almshouse		
4. For groceries and provisions		
5. For fuel and lights		
6. For clothing		
7. For furniture		
8. For ordinary repairs		
9. For other ordinary expenses		
10. Total ordinary expenses	$	$
Dr.		
1. Received from sale of farm produce, etc.		
2. Expenses of inmates refunded by other counties		
3. Expenses of inmates paid by themselves or their friends		
4. All other sources* (specify what sources)		
5. Total receipts	$	$
Net expenses (exclusive of permanent improvements) of poorhouse during the fiscal year	$	$
Total number of weeks' board furnished inmates		
Average cost of support per week for each inmate, not counting interest on investment	$	$
(Find by dividing net expenses by number of weeks' board of inmates.)		

* Do not include in receipts of almshouse amounts paid by towns or cities to the county for board of paupers. This should be stated separately.

7. *Inventory.*

Item.	Last Year.	This Year.
Estimated value of land		
Estimated value of buildings		
Estimated value of furniture		
Estimated value of machinery		
Estimated value of live stock		
Estimated value of other property		
Total amount of inventory	$	$

OUTSIDE RELIEF.

1. *General Questions.*—What is the total amount of orders drawn for the relief of the poor by the county clerk or auditor, during the year? Of this amount, how much is chargeable to almshouse account? How much to outside relief?

2. *Financial Statement.*—Of the amount paid for outside relief, and *not chargeable to almshouse account*, how much was paid for temporary relief of paupers? for board and care of paupers in hosptials or in families other than their own? for medical attendance and medicines? for burial expenses? for transportation of paupers, except to almshouse? for salary or per diem of superintendents or overseers of poor or other officers having charge of outside relief? for all other expenses?

3. *Persons Relieved.*—What was the total number of *cases* aided (omitting vagrants and travellers)? What was the total number of *persons* included in these cases (counting all members of families)? Of this total number of *persons* aided, how many received full support? and how many of them received only partial support? What was the number of persons for whom railroad fares were paid?